

Assessment of the health and antioxidant trade-off in gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata* L.) fed alternative diets with low levels of contaminants

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the present work was to analyze the effect of partial and total replacement of fish oil (FO) by a blend of vegetable oils on the health and antioxidant status of gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata* L.) fed primarily plant-protein based diets. The study included measurements of feed-borne contaminants, gene expression analyses of detoxifying and antioxidant pathways and measures of antioxidant and innate immune descriptors. Polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs) were almost undetectable in all diets, and the loading-charges of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), dioxin-like PCBs, organochlorine pesticides (OCs), and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) were at trace levels decreasing their concentrations according to the level of FO replacement with vegetable oils (0%, 33%, 66%, 100%). Hepatic detoxifying pathways were down regulated by FO replacement, and the hepatic transcription of cytochrome P450 1A1 and aryl hydrocarbon receptor 1 was significantly reduced in fish fed the 100% vegetal oil diet. Dietary intervention did not alter the hepatic expression of the recycling glutathione reductase, whereas glutathione peroxidase-1 and phospholipid glutathione peroxidase were either down or up-regulated by the total FO replacement. This suggests that vegetable oils prime the *in situ* repair of peroxidized phospholipids rather than the increased turnover of membrane phospholipids from the undamaged pool of cytosolic free fatty acids. The hepatic expression of non-enzymatic antioxidants (metallothionein, glucose regulated protein 75) was down regulated in fish fed 66% and 100% vegetable oil diets. Hepatic glutathione levels and total plasma antioxidant capacity were also lowest in fish fed high levels of vegetable oils, but the concurrent increase in the GSH/GSSG ratio was interpreted as an index of reduced oxidative stress. This redox balance agrees with the enhanced respiratory burst of blood leucocytes after PMA stimulation in fish feed the 100% vegetable oil. Total plasma peroxidases and plasma alternative complement pathway were not affected by dietary treatment, whereas plasma lysozyme was significantly decreased in fish fed the 66% vegetable oil diet. Taken together, the results suggest that the health and the antioxidant status of gilthead sea bream was not damaged by high levels of FO replacement in eco-friendly diets, but both the scavenging and production of reactive oxygen species were modulated in concert by complex and nutritionally-mediated readjustments.

Key words: fish oil, vegetal oil, plant proteins, aryl hydrocarbon receptors, cytochrome P450 1A1, glucose regulated protein 75, metallothionein, glutathione, alternative complement pathway, lysozyme, peroxidases, ROS production.

1. Introduction

The increasing demand of fish oil (FO) to meet the expanding aquaculture industry, together with the opposing trend of fisheries and the increasing use of FO in nutraceutical and agricultural industries, has lead to the search for alternative sources of dietary lipids in fish feeds (Miller et al., 2008). Different vegetable oils at different levels of inclusion have been tested with variable results in freshwater and marine fish (Bell and Waagbo, 2008; Webster et al., 2007). Indeed, vegetable oils are rich in C₁₈ polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA), but they are lacking in n-3 long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LC-PUFAs). This means that fish feeding on vegetable oils would have to desaturate and elongate C₁₈ PUFAs to their LC-PUFA derivatives. However, all marine fish so far studied, including gilthead sea bream, appear to have lost the ability to make such conversion (Mourete and Tocher, 1994; Seiliez et al., 2003; Zheng et al., 2004), and therefore they have absolute dietary requirement for C₂₀ and C₂₂ PUFAs. On the other hand, marine derived products are also the main source of environmental pollutants, even in human dietary supplements (Storelli et al., 2004). Furthermore, the high levels found in some farmed fish have led to reconsider the possible beneficial properties of fish consumption in some population groups (Foran et al., 2005; Hamilton et al., 2005). Thus, efforts to reduce this contaminant load have also been directed towards the use of alternative vegetable oils in fish feeds (Bethune et al., 2006) and even to engineering oil seeds to produce n-3 LC-PUFA (Damude and Kinney, 2008).

The anti-inflammatory effect of n-3 LC-PUFAs has been extensively documented, and supplementation of domestic foods with marine FO is becoming an accepted practice to improve the nutritional quality of most animal products (e.g., meat, milk, eggs). However, LC-PUFAs are extremely vulnerable to oxidation and dietary antioxidants (e.g., vitamin C, vitamin E, polyphenols, carotenoids, biologically active peptides) help to counteract the

negative effects of lipid peroxidation, having beneficial effects on growth, fertility, immunocompetence, ageing and pollutant susceptibility (Catoni et al., 2008; Erdmann et al., 2008; Fang et al., 2002). In fish, most studies dealing with antioxidant systems have focused on vitamin E, carotenoids and some minerals (Martínez-Alvarez et al., 2005; Mourente et al., 2007a), but now there is also evidence for the antioxidant properties of plant protein ingredients in practical diets for gilthead sea bream (Sitjà-Bobadilla et al., 2005), a highly valued fish for the Mediterranean aquaculture. Also, we have earlier shown that both fish meal and FO can be replaced up to 65-75% without growth retardation and signs of histopathological damage (Benedito-Palos et al., 2007; 2008). The goal of the present study is to gain more understanding about the risk and benefits of these eco-friendly diets, in terms of the health and anti-oxidant status of the fish. For this issue, plant protein-based diets with a partial or total replacement of FO with vegetable oils were formulated, and the loading-charges of the most common persistent organic pollutants (POPs) were firstly monitored. The transcriptional and nutritionally-mediated effects on detoxifying and antioxidant defence systems were assessed by hepatic mRNA measurements of aryl hydrocarbon receptors (AhR1 and AhR2), cytochrome P450 1A1 (CYP1A; EC 1.14.14.1), metallothionein (MT), glucose regulated protein 75 (GRP75), glutathione reductase (GR; EC 1.8.1.7), glutathione peroxidase (GPx-1; EC 1.11.1.9) and phospholipid glutathione peroxidase (PHGPx; EC 1.11.1.12). Hepatic glutathione levels and total plasma antioxidant capacity were monitored as antioxidant indexes. Lastly, immunological and pro-inflammatory status was assessed through the alternative complement pathway, leucocyte production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), and plasma measures of lysozyme and total peroxidase activities.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Experimental setup

Animals and samples were the same as those described in a previous study (Benedito-Palos et al., 2008). Briefly, juvenile gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata* L.) of 16 g initial mean body weight were distributed into 12 fibreglass tanks (500 l) in groups of 60 fish per tank at the research experimental facilities of IATS (Castellón, Spain). Each triplicate group received from May 23rd to September 19th one of the four experimental diets nominally CTRL, 33VO, 66VO and VO (Table 1). Added oil was either Scandinavian FO (CTRL diet) or a blend of vegetable oils, replacing the 33% (33VO diet), 66% (66VO diet) and 100% (VO diet) of FO. All diets were manufactured using a twin-screw extruder at the INRA experimental research station of Donzaq (Landes, France), dried under hot air, sealed and kept in air-tight bags until use.

Fish were reared under natural day-length and water temperature following the natural changes at IATS latitude (40° 5'N; 0° 10'E). Water flow was 20 l/min and feed was offered by hand to apparent visual satiety twice a day (9.00 h-14.00 h). Each 3-4 weeks, fish were counted and group-weighed under moderate anaesthesia (3-aminobenzoic acid ethyl ester, MS 222; 100 µg/ml). There was no reduction in growth or feed efficiency (wet weight gain/dry feed intake = 1.06-1.02) with the partial replacement of FO (183-186 g final mean body weight for fish fed CTRL 33VO, 66VO diets). A decrease in feed intake and weight gain of about 10% was found with the total FO replacement (VO diet).

At the end of the feeding trial, randomly selected fish (4 fish per tank; 12 fish per treatment) were killed by a blow on the head prior to blood and tissue sampling. Blood was taken with heparinised syringes from caudal vessels, and kept on ice. One aliquot was

immediately used to measure respiratory burst activity of circulating leucocytes. The remaining blood was centrifuged at 3000 g for 20 min at 4 °C, and plasma aliquots were stored at -80 °C until use. Liver was extracted and rapidly excised, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80 °C until analyses.

2.2 Contaminant analyses

Organochlorine pesticides (OCPs), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), dioxin-like PCBs (DL-PCBs) and polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs) were analyzed in fish feeds as described elsewhere (Serrano et al., 2003a). Briefly, feed-borne contaminants were extracted by refluxing ca. 8 g during 4 h. Clean-up was performed by means of sulphuric acid digestion prior to normal phase liquid chromatography (NPLC). Identification and quantification of PCBs, DL-PCBs and selected OCPs were performed using a gas chromatograph (GC, Varian CP-3800) coupled to a Varian Saturn 4000 ion trap mass spectrometry detector (system operated in MS/MS mode). Instrumental determination of PBDEs was carried out by means of a GC system (Agilent 6890N, Palo Alto, USA), equipped with an autosampler (Agilent 7683) coupled to a triple quadrupole (QqQ) mass spectrometer (Quattro Micro GC; Micromass, Boston, USA) operating in CI mode.

For polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) analysis, a first saponification step was carried out. PAH analytes were then extracted twice with 8 ml of n-hexane and concentrated under gentle nitrogen stream at 40 °C to 1 ml. The resultant extract was purified in Florisil SPE cartridge. The final extract free of interference compounds was analyzed by means of the Quattro Micro GC system working in EI (MS/MS). The analytical method offered satisfactory results in linearity (0.5-90 µg/ml), accuracy (recoveries between 70-120 %, n=6,

at 1, 10 and 20 ng/g levels), precision (RSD < 30%) and selectivity (using two transitions from tandem mass spectrometry).

In all assays, isotopically labelled standards were added before extraction as surrogates for quality control. Quantification was performed using the internal standard method with external calibration curves.

2.3 RNA extraction and RT procedure

Total RNA extraction was performed with the ABI PRISM™ 6100 Nucleic Acid PrepStation (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Briefly, liver tissue was homogenized at a ratio of 25 mg/ml with a guanidine-detergent lysis reagent. The reaction mixture was treated with protease K, and RNA purification was achieved by passing the tissue lysate (0.5 ml) through a purification tray containing an application-specific membrane. Wash solutions containing DNase were applied, and total RNA was eluted into a 96-well PCR plate. The RNA yield was 40-50 µg with absorbance measures ($A_{260/280}$) of 1.9-2.1.

Reverse transcription (RT) with random decamers was performed with the High-Capacity cDNA Archive Kit (Applied Biosystems). For this purpose, 500 ng total RNA were reverse transcribed in a final volume of 100 µl. RT reactions were incubated 10 min at 25 °C and 2 h at 37 °C. Control reactions were run without reverse transcriptase and were used as negative real-time PCR controls.

2.4 Gene expression profile

The abundance of hepatic transcript levels was analyzed by way of real-time PCR assays, using an iCycler IQ Real-time Detection System (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) as previously described (Calduch-Giner et al., 2003). Briefly, diluted RT reactions were conveniently used for PCR reactions in 25- μ l volume. Each PCR-well contained a SYBR Green Master Mix (Bio-Rad) and specific primers at a final concentration of 0.3-0.9 μ M to obtain amplicons of 51-150 bp in length (Table 2). β -actin was used as housekeeping gene, and the efficiency of PCR reactions for target and the reference gene varied between 95% and 98%, respectively. The dynamic range of standard curves (serial dilutions of RT-PCR reactions) spanned five orders of magnitude, and the amount of product in a particular sample was determined by interpolation of the cycle threshold (Ct) value. The specificity of reaction was verified by analysis of melting curves and by electrophoresis and sequencing of PCR amplified products. Reactions were performed in triplicate and the fluorescence data acquired during the extension phase were normalized to β -actin by the delta-delta method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). No changes in β -actin expression were found in response to dietary intervention.

2.5 Glutathione determinations

Frozen liver samples were homogenised with 5 volumes of ice-cold buffer [200 mM 2-(N-morpholino) ethanesulphonic acid, 50 mM phosphate, 1 mM EDTA, pH 6], and centrifuged for 15 min at 20 000 g and 4°C. Supernatants were deproteinized with metaphosphoric acid, and oxidized (GSSG) and total (tGSx) levels of glutathione were determined enzymatically with a commercial kit (Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI, USA)

based on the recycling reaction of reduced glutathione (GSH) with DNTB (5,5'-dithio-2-nitrobenzoic acid) in the presence of an excess of GR. Measurements were made in a microplate reader, and the GSH/GSSG ratio was calculated as the quotient of reduced GSH equivalents.

2.6 Antioxidant capacity

Total antioxidant capacity in plasma samples was measured with a commercial kit (Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) adapted to 96-well microplates. The assay relies on the ability of antioxidants in the sample to inhibit the oxidation of ABTS [2,2'-azino-di-(3-ethylbenzthiazoline sulphonate)] to ABTS radical cation by metamyoglobin, a derivatized form of myoglobin. The capacity of the sample to prevent ABTS oxidation is compared with that of Trolox (water-soluble tocopherol analogue), and is quantified as millimolar Trolox equivalents.

2.7 Leucocyte ROS production

Induction of the respiratory burst (RB) activity in blood leucocytes was measured directly from heparinised blood, following the method described by Nikoskelainen et al. (2005). Briefly, 100 µl of diluted blood (1:25) in HBSS (Hanks balanced salt solution, pH 7.4) were dispensed in white flat-bottomed 96-wells, and incubated with 100 µl of a freshly prepared luminol suspension (2mM luminol in 0.2 M borate buffer pH 9.0, with 2 µg/ml phorbol myristate acetate (PMA)) for 1 h at 24-25 °C. Luminol-amplified chemiluminescence was measured every 3 min with a plate luminescence reader for generation of kinetic curves.

Each sample was run by duplicate and read against a blank in which no blood was added. The integral luminescence in relative light units (RLU) was calculated.

Total plasma peroxidases (PO), which include myeloperoxidase, were chosen as a measure of the oxidizing capacity of the plasma, because of their involvement in the production of ROS (Spickett et al., 2000). They were measured following the procedure described in Sitjà-Bobadilla et al. (2005). Briefly, 15 µl of plasma were mixed in flat-bottomed well plates with 135 µl of HBSS-plus (HBSS, without Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} , 0.1% NaCl and antimycotic/antibiotic mixture) and 50 µl of 3,3',5,5'-tetramethylbenzidine hydrochloride (TMB). After 2 min of incubation, the reaction was stopped with 25 µl of 1N H_2SO_4 , and the optical density was read at 450 nm. Wells in which no plasma was added were run as blanks.

2.8 Lysozyme and alternative complement pathway

The lysis by the alternative complement pathway (ACP) was determined as in Sitjà-Bobadilla et al. (2005), with some modifications. Briefly, sheep red blood cells (SRBC) obtained from sheep defibrinated blood (Durviz, Valencia, Spain) were used as targets at a final concentration of 2.85×10^8 cells/ml. Triplicates of tested plasma (100 µl), diluted in HBSS-EGTA (Hank's Balanced Salt Solution, plus 10 mM Mg^{2+} and 10 mM ethylene glycolbistetra-acetate, pH 7.6), were mixed with 25 µl of SRBC in 96-well plates. Microplates were then incubated for 100 min at 20°C with constant shaking and centrifuged to spin down the remaining SRBC. The absorbance of the supernatant was read at 415 nm. The dilution corresponding to 50% haemolysis was expressed as ACH_{50} .

Plasma lysozyme was measured by a turbidimetric assay adapted to 96-well microplates, as previously described (Sitjà-Bobadilla et al., 2005). Briefly, lyophilized

Micrococcus lysodeikticus (0.3 mg/ml) (Sigma) in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer at pH 6.2 was used as a substrate for the plasma lysozyme. Triplicates of test plasma (diluted 1:2, 10 µl) were added to 200 µl of the bacterial suspension, and the reduction in absorbance at 450 nm was measured after 0.5 and 4.5 min. A unit of lysozyme activity was defined as the amount of enzyme that caused a decrease in absorbance of 0.001 per min.

2.9 Statistical analysis

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Student-Newman-Keuls test was used to compare means of the four different groups. The significance level was set at $P < 0.05$. All statistical analyses were performed using Sigma Stat software (SPSS Inc., IL).

3. Results

3.1 Feed-borne contaminants

Although the charge of POPs in all experimental feeds was in the range of trace levels, FO replacement with vegetable oils resulted in a significant and progressive reduction of feed-borne contaminants (Table 3). The total PCB/DL-PCB concentration on a wet weight basis ranged between 9.6 and 2.2 ng/g for the two extreme diets (CTRL and VO). Detectable amounts of HCB, DDT and DDT-derivates were found in all diets, varying the sum of these selected OCPs from 9.8 in the CTRL diet to 1.6 ng/g in the VO diet. Regardless of diet, most PBDE congeners were below the limit of detection (< 0.1 ng/g). Most PAHs were also below the limit of detection (< 0.1 - 0.5 ng/g), decreasing the sum of detectable PAH congeners

(phenanthrene + anthracene, pyrene, chrysene, benzo [a] anthracene, benzo [b] fluoranthene, benzo [k] fluoranthene) from 9.5 ng/g in the CTRL diet to 4.1 ng/g in the VO diet.

3.2 Hepatic transcripts

The expression pattern of AhRs and CYP 1A is shown in Fig. 1. Hepatic transcription of AhR1 was down-regulated by FO replacement, and a significant 30% reduction in AhR1 mRNA levels was found in fish fed the VO diet (Fig. 1A). The relative expression of AhR2 was not significantly altered by dietary treatment (Fig. 1B). The trend for CYP1A was similar to that of AhR1, and a two-fold reduction in CYP1A mRNA levels was found in fish fed the VO diet (Fig. 1C).

The expression pattern of antioxidant enzymes of the hepatic glutathione pathway is shown in Fig. 2. The amount of GR mRNA transcripts was not affected by dietary treatment (Fig. 2A). The expression of GPx-1 was down-regulated by FO replacement, and a slight but significant 20% reduction in GPx-1 mRNA levels was found in fish fed the VO diet when comparisons were made with fish fed the CTRL diet (Fig. 2B). The trend for PHGPx was opposite to that of GPx-1, and the expression of PHGPx mRNA was enhanced by a 30% in fish fed the VO diet (Fig. 2C).

The hepatic expression of MT was reduced by FO replacement, and the abundance of MT mRNA levels in fish fed 66VO and VO diets was two-fold lower than in fish fed CTRL and 33VO diets (Fig. 3A). The relative expression of GRP75 was significantly reduced by a 40% in fish fed the VO diet in comparison to data found in fish fed the CTRL diet (Fig. 3B).

3.3 *Glutathione and antioxidant defence system*

The hepatic synthesis of glutathione was inhibited by FO replacement, and tGSx levels (oxidized plus reduced forms) were significantly and progressively decreased in fish fed 66VO and VO diets (Fig. 4A). The oxidized form (GSSG) also decreased with FO replacement (Fig. 4B), but the GSH/GSSG ratio increased in concert and the highest quotient was found in fish fed the VO diet (Fig. 4C). Dietary intervention also altered the total plasma antioxidant capacity, and the values registered in fish fed the VO diet were significantly lower than in CTRL fish (Fig. 5).

3.4 *Immune status*

The RB of circulating leucocytes was triggered by the graded replacement of FO. Thus, ROS production after PMA stimulation was lowest in fish fed the CTRL diet and two-three folds higher in fish fed the VO diet (Fig. 6A). Non significant differences were found in plasma PO (Fig. 6B). Likewise, dietary intervention did not modify the ACP, although the maximum ACH₅₀ values (no statistically significant) were found in fish fed the 66VO diet (Fig. 6C). Conversely, plasma lysozyme levels were reduced in this group of fish, and the measured values in fish fed the 66VO diet were significantly lower than in the CTRL group (Fig. 6D).

4. Discussion

The cardioprotective and anti-inflammatory properties (Calder, 2008) of n-3 LC-PUFAs are behind the recommendation of increased fish consumption in contemporary western diet. However, n-3 LC-PUFAs have a higher susceptibility to oxidation (Jobling and Bendiksen, 2003), and FOs and seafood in general are considered the most important source of dietary pollutants in the human diet (Abalos et al., 2008a; Borga et al., 2001; Kidd et al., 2001; Serrano et al., 2003a). In the current study, the total replacement of FO by vegetable oils reduced the total charge of POPs in fish feeds by a 45-85%. Moreover, PBDEs were below the limit of detection, and the load-charge of PCBs, DL-PCBs and OCPs was lower than or in the same range as previously reported in salmon feeds (Bell et al., 2005; Berntssen et al., 2005; Easton et al., 2002; Hites et al., 2004) and other marine fish feeds (Serrano et al., 2003b; 2008a; 2008b). In consequence, the analyzed feed-borne contaminants were at low or trace levels regardless of the diet, even in the FO diet. However, the detoxifying cytochrome/AhR pathway of gilthead sea bream appears to be sensitive enough to detect the progressive reduction of contaminants when FO was progressively reduced in fish fed 66VO and VO diets.

Cytochrome P450s constitutes a major family of drug metabolizing enzymes that transform xenobiotics to non-toxic or procarcinogenic metabolites. The transcriptional or post-transcriptional induction of CYP1A and related enzymes is mediated in gilthead sea bream (Ortiz-Delgado et al., 2002; Ortiz-Delgado and Sarasquete, 2004) and other teleosts (Barron et al., 2004; Billiard et al., 2004; Jönsson et al., 2004; Panserat et al., 2008; Yuan et al., 2006) by planar halogenated compounds (PAHs, PCBs, TCDD, etc.) that bind to cytosolic AhRs, leading to the dissociation of heat-shock protein-90 from the activated ligand-receptor complex. This specific binding ultimately results in the up-regulation of the

CYP1A gene through the activation of xenobiotic-responsive elements in the promoter region of the CYP1A gene (Hankinson, 2005). Flavonoids are thought to promote optimal health, partly via their antioxidant effects in protecting cellular components against free radicals. However, recent *in vitro* studies in mammals have also shown that some food flavonoids down-regulate CYP1A at the functional level of AhR, inhibiting the toxic effects of PCBs (Ramadass et al., 2003; Van der Heiden et al., 2009). Thus, in the current work, the significant decrease of CYP1A and AhR1 found in fish fed vegetable oils could be due not only to the reduction of contaminants, but also to the possible presence of some compounds of plant origin, such as flavonoids.

Fish differ from mammals and birds in having not one, but at least two AhR genes designated as AhR1 and AhR2. Phylogenetic analyses and gene mapping indicate that AhR1 of bony and cartilaginous fish is the ortholog of the mammalian AhR (Hahn, 2002). However, there are different roles and tissue-specific profiles for each AhR between and within fish species. Thus, AhR1 paralogs are transcribed at very low levels in Atlantic salmon, and Hansson et al. (2004) suggested that if any AhR loci become dysfunctional (pseudogenes) these should be related to AhR1. By contrast, red sea bream, which belongs to the order Perciformes (Sparidae family), shows a wide and prominent tissue expression of AhR1 (Yamauchi et al., 2005). Similarly, in the present study, the expression of AhR1 was modulated in gilthead sea bream by dietary exposure to trace levels of environmental pollutants, whereas transcript levels of AhR2 remained almost unchanged. This suggests that AhR2 is more constitutively expressed than AhR1 in sparids. However, long-term dietary exposure to PCDD/Fs, and in particular to the most toxic congener 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (2,3,7,8-TCDD), clearly induced in gilthead sea bream the expression of AhR2 (Abalos et al., 2008b). Unfortunately, no data are available in this last study for AhR1 and the dual response of fish AhRs needs to be addressed in a specific and

dose-dependent manner not only in gilthead sea bream, but also in a wide range of sentinel fish species.

The primary enzymatic antioxidant defence system is the glutathione redox system that reduces hydrogen peroxide and lipid hydroperoxides at the expense of oxidizing GSH to its disulfide form (GSSG). GR returns the oxidized glutathione form to GSH using NADPH as reducing equivalents. In the present study, the hepatic expression of GR was not nutritionally regulated. However, selenium-dependent glutathione peroxidases were inhibited (GPx-1) or induced (PHGPx) by FO replacement according to their different substrate specificity and cellular distribution, as it has been observed in other fish models (Imai and Nakagawa, 2003). Thus, the cytosolic GPx-1, which acts alone or in combination with phospholipase A₂ on H₂O₂ and free fatty acid hydroperoxides, was down regulated in fish fed the VO diet. Conversely, mitochondrial PHGPx, which acts primarily on peroxidized fatty acids of membrane phospholipids, was significantly overexpressed in the same group of fish. Since these two enzymes probably operate in concert, it can be postulated that fish fed vegetable oils prime the *in situ* repair of peroxidized phospholipids rather than the turnover of membrane phospholipids from the cytosolic pool of undamaged free fatty acids. This strategy should be especially advantageous in marine fish because their low elongase and desaturase rates for bioconversion of C₁₈ vegetable oils into C₂₂ PUFA reduce the pool of LC-PUFA in fat depots (Benedito-Palos et al., 2007; 2008).

Dietary intervention also modified the transcriptional regulation of non-enzymatic antioxidant markers, and the VO group showed the lowest hepatic expression of GRP75 and MT. The GRP75, also named mortalin/HSPA9B/PBP74/mtHSP70, is a mitochondrial-type stress-protein of the heat shock protein 70 (HSP 70) family that performs a broad spectrum of cellular functions, making this protein and its yeast homologue (SSC1) life-essential (Craven et al., 2005; Kaul et al., 2007). Likewise, MT is a ubiquitous low molecular cystein rich-

protein that protects lower and higher vertebrates against heavy metals and oxidant stressors (Gornati et al., 2004; Scudiero et al., 2005). Previous studies in common dentex and gilthead sea bream indicate that both GRP75 and MT transcripts are regulated in these two sparid fish by stressful behaviour and stress confinement, protecting fish against oxidative insults (Bermejo-Nogales et al., 2007; 2008). In this way, the down regulation of these two oxidative markers with FO replacement, together with the lowered plasma antioxidant capacity, can be interpreted as a reduced oxidative stress. This is supported by the increased hepatic GSH/GSSG ratio in VO fish despite of the reduction in absolute glutathione levels. This result agrees with the recent concept that low antioxidant levels in farmed animals and long-live mammals and birds predict low rates of ROS generation (Pamplona, 2008; Lykkesfeldt and Svendsen, 2007).

Dietary fatty acids are capable of modulating the immune system in mammals (De Pablo and De Cienfuegos, 2000) and n-3 LC-PUFA present in FO, and more specifically eicosapentaenoic (EPA) and docosahexaenoic (DHA) fatty acids, have well recognized anti-inflammatory properties (Calder, 2007). Conversely, many environmental toxicants frequently cause inflammation by damaging tissues and inducing signalling pathways that are oxidative stress-sensitive (Bols et al., 2001). Thus, FO replacement by vegetable oils could provoke a double-edged effect in fish. However, in the current study, the anti-inflammatory action of FO clearly over passed the possible inflammatory action of FO-borne contaminants, since its replacement by vegetable oils progressively increased the PMA-induced RB of blood leucocytes. This could be due to the fact that toxicant-induced inflammation usually occurs at high toxicant concentrations, but not at the trace dietary levels found in the current study (Pimpao et al., 2008). Similarly, the *in vitro* addition of EPA and DHA provoked a marked reduction of superoxide anion generation in human polymorphonuclear leucocytes (Chen et al., 1994), and dietary EPA caused a dose-dependent decrease in neutrophil RB in

elderly men (Rees et al., 2006). The immunosuppressive effect of n-3 LC-PUFA is thought to be caused by changes in eicosanoid production, but recent studies have shown that the effects of FO occur by eicosanoid-independent mechanisms, including actions upon receptor, intracellular signalling pathways, transcription factor activity and gene expression (Gorjão et al., 2006). However, we cannot disregard the possible inflammatory effect of vegetable components. For example, the addition of soy phosphatidylcholine in human diet induced a significant increase in neutrophil superoxide generation (Guarini et al., 1998), and even undefined “herbal mixtures” added to fish diet appear to enhance some immune parameters, including the RB (Yuan et al., 2007).

In fish, changing the dietary n-3 LC-PUFA levels can have both beneficial and, in some instances, detrimental effects on disease resistance and immune status. Thus, the intake of high levels of dietary n-3 LC-PUFA suppressed some immune functions and reduced survival after pathogen challenge (Erdal et al., 1991; Fracalossi and Lovell, 1994; Kiron et al., 1995; Misra et al., 2006). Conversely, other studies found significantly higher mortality rates in fish fed some vegetable oils compared to those fed with FO when subsequently challenged with bacteria (Brandsen et al., 2003; Thompson et al., 1996). In grouper (*Epinephelus malabaricus*), a high dietary DHA/EPA ratio significantly enhanced phagocytic and RB activities (Wu et al., 2003), whereas 100% replacement of FO with corn oil for 8 weeks significantly reduced the RB of circulating leucocytes (Lin and Shiau, 2007). Similarly, 40% substitution of FO by a mixture of vegetable oils, or individual vegetable oils in the diet of European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*), significantly reduced the RB of head kidney leucocytes (Mourete et al., 2005; 2007b). In gilthead sea bream, a 204 days-trial with 60 and 80% FO replacement by single or mixed vegetable oils did not affect the RB of circulating neutrophils (Montero et al., 2003). The same happened when FO was 100% replaced by different vegetable oils in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) (Bell et al., 1996).

These inconsistent results concerning the effect of vegetable oils on RB may, to some extent, be due to the type of cells and the method of assessment. In our case, RB was assayed on whole blood, which avoids the mechanic impact of the isolation procedures on the cells. Furthermore, luminol-enhanced chemiluminescent is thought to measure intracellular as well as extracellular ROS, whereas other methods measure only one type of ROS production.

In the current study, total peroxidases and ACH₅₀ were not significantly affected by the dietary treatment. The even levels of PO could indicate that the release of these enzymes from leucocytes was not elevated when FO was replaced. This should be regarded as potentially beneficial for fish fed vegetable oils, since high plasma MPO levels in humans are considered as a specific index of leucocytic activation in inflammatory diseases and also correlate with heart diseases and atherosclerosis (Meuwese et al., 2007; Vita et al., 2004). In accordance with the present results, ACH₅₀ was not affected by 60% replacement by soybean oil (SO), rapeseed oil (RO) or linseed oil (LO) or a mixture of them when fed for a short-term to gilthead sea bream. However, when fed for a longer time (204 days), SO fed fish had significantly lower values (Montero et al., 2003). When the level of replacement was increased to 100% with SO or LO for 6 months, ACH₅₀ was again decreased (Montero et al., 2008), but these effects were not seen when a mixture of LO and SO was used. By contrast, partial (but not total) replacement of FO with corn oil increased ACH₅₀ in grouper (Lin and Shiau, 2007), and feeding with canola oil or with LO or safflower oil had no significant effect in the ACH₅₀ of largemouth bass (*Micropterus salmoides*) (Subhadra et al., 2006), and rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) (Kiron et al., 2004), respectively.

The only humoral innate factor modified by the current dietary treatment was lysozyme, which was significantly decreased in fish fed the 66VO diet. Similarly, serum lysozyme of hens fed maize oil was significantly lower than in those fed with FO (Guo et al., 2004). By contrast, serum lysozyme appears to be unaffected in most studies with fish fed

diets rich in vegetable oils (Bell et al., 1996; 2006; Kiron et al., 2004; Montero et al., 2003; Mourente et al., 2005; Subhadra et al., 2006). These apparent contradictory effects on immune factors are probably due to different experimental conditions (fish meal inclusion, type of vegetable oil, PUFAs ratios, feeding time, etc.), type of immunocytes involved and species model. One of the differences of our dietary trial is that the basal diet has also a high level of substitution of fish meal by plant proteins, and most fish trials replace either fish meal or FO.

In conclusion, the present results show that the concurrent decrease of feed-borne contaminants and inclusion of vegetable oils produced in gilthead sea bream the readjustment of detoxifying pathways and ROS production and scavenging (enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants) processes. The lowering of the plasma antioxidant capacity seems not to endanger fish health, since the hepatic GSH/GSSG ratio was increased, evidencing a lower risk of lipid peroxidation and oxidative damage. Anyway, the biological significance of the lowered lysozyme or other induced changes in the defence mechanism of the fish must be further explored with experimental infections for the complete development and validation of eco-friendly aquafeeds based on the concurrent FO and fish meal replacement.

5. Acknowledgments

This work was funded by EU (FOOD-CT-2006-16249; Sustainable Aquafeeds to Maximise the Health Benefits of Farmed Fish for Consumers, AQUAMAX) and Spanish (Ingenio-2010 Programme; Improvement of Aquaculture Production by the use of biotechnological tools, AQUAGENOMICS) projects. AS-V was recipient of a Spanish PhD fellowship from the Diputación Provincial de Castellón.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Effects of dietary treatment on hepatic transcript levels of aryl hydrocarbon receptor 1 (A), aryl hydrocarbon receptor 2 (B) and cytochrome P450 1A1 (C). Data in fish fed the control diet were used as arbitrary reference values in the normalization procedure (values > 1 or < 1 indicate increase or decrease respect to reference values). Different letters indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among dietary treatments (Student-Newman-Keuls test).

Figure 2. Effects of dietary treatment on hepatic transcript levels of glutathione reductase (A), glutathione peroxidase (B) and phospholipid glutathione peroxidase (C). Data in fish fed the control diet were used as arbitrary reference values in the normalization procedure (values > 1 or < 1 indicate increase or decrease respect to reference values). Different letters indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among dietary treatments (Student-Newman-Keuls test).

Figure 3. Effects of dietary treatment on hepatic transcript levels of metallothionein (A) and glucose regulated protein 75 (A). Data in fish fed the control diet were used as arbitrary reference values in the normalization procedure (values > 1 or < 1 indicate increase or decrease respect to reference values). Different letters indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among dietary treatments (Student-Newman-Keuls test).

Figure 4. Effects of dietary treatment on hepatic glutathione levels. Total glutathione (A), oxidized glutathione (B) and reduced oxidized glutathione ratio (C). Different letters

indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among dietary treatments (Student-Newman-Keuls test).

Figure 5. Effects of dietary treatment on the total plasma antioxidant capacity. Different letters indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among dietary treatments (Student-Newman-Keuls test).

Figure 6. Effects of dietary treatment on the respiratory burst of circulating leucocytes (A), plasma peroxidases (B), serum alternative complement pathway (C) and plasma lysozyme levels (D). Different letters indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among dietary treatments (Student-Newman-Keuls test).

Table 1. Ingredients and chemical composition of experimental diets. For details in amino acid and fatty acid composition see Benedito-Palos et al. (2007).

Ingredient (g/kg)	CTRL	33VO	66VO	VO
Fish meal (CP 70%) ¹	150	150	150	150
CPSP 90 ²	50	50	50	50
Corn gluten	400	400	400	400
Soybean meal	143	143	143	143
Extruded wheat	40	40	40	40
Fish oil ³	151.5	101.5	51.5	0
Rapeseed oil	0	8.5	17	25.8
Linseed oil	0	29	58	87.9
Palm oil	0	12.5	25	37.9
Soya lecithin	10	10	10	10
Binder	10	10	10	10
Mineral premix ⁴	10	10	10	10
Vitamin premix ⁵	10	10	10	10
CaHPO ₄ ·2H ₂ O (18%P)	20	20	20	20
L-Lys	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5

Proximate composition

Dry matter (DM, %)	93.42	94.16	94.79	95.38
Protein (% DM)	48.98	48.74	49.03	48.65
Fat (% DM)	22.19	22.26	22.11	22.31
Ash (% DM)	6.54	6.57	6.62	6.41

¹Fish meal (Scandinavian LT)

²Fish soluble protein concentrate (Sopropêche, France)

³Fish oil (Sopropêche, France)

⁴Supplied the following (mg / kg diet, except as noted): calcium carbonate (40% Ca) 2.15 g, magnesium hydroxide (60% Mg) 1.24 g, potassium chloride 0.9 g, ferric citrate 0.2 g, potassium iodine 4 mg, sodium chloride 0.4 g, calcium hydrogen phosphate 50 g, copper sulphate 0.3, zinc sulphate 40, cobalt sulphate 2, manganese sulphate 30, sodium selenite 0.3.

⁵Supplied the following (mg / kg diet): retinyl acetate 2.58, DL-cholecalciferol 0.037, DL- α -tocopheryl acetate 30, menadione sodium bisulphite 2.5, thiamin 7.5, riboflavin 15, pyridoxine 7.5, nicotinic acid 87.5, folic acid 2.5, calcium pantothenate 2.5, vitamin B₁₂ 0.025, ascorbic acid 250, inositol 500, biotin 1.25 and choline chloride 500.

853 **Table 2.** Forward and reverse primers for hepatic real-time PCR assays. Aryl hydrocarbon receptors (AhR1, AhR2),
 854 cytochrome P450 1A1 (CYP1A), metallothionein (MT), glucose regulated protein 75 (GRP75), glutathione reductase
 855 (GR), glutathione peroxidase (GPx-1), phospholipid glutathione peroxidase (PHGPx) and β -actin.
 856

Gene	GenBank accession	Primer sequence	Position
AhR1	EU254480	F CCT GGG ACT GAA CGC CGA AG R GCT AAG TGT TGG GAT GTG GTT GG	1027-1046 1120-1086
AhR2	AY129956	F TCA GAG GGA TTG GTG TTT TAT GTC R TGG GTT TAG AGC AAA GTG AAG C	358-381 507-486
CYP1A	AFO11223	F GCA TCA ACG ACC GCT TCA ACG C R CCT ACA ACC TTC TCA TCC GAC ATC TGG	903-924 1071-1045
GR	AJ937873	F TGT TCA GCC ACC CAC CCA TCG G R GCG TGA TAC ATC GGA GTG AAT GAA GTC TTG	927-948 1041-1029
GPx-1	DQ524992	F GAA GGT GGA TGT GAA TGG AAA AGA TG R CTG ACG GGA CTC CAA ATG ATG G	34-59 162-141
PHGPx	AM977818	F TGC GTC TGA TAG GGT CCA CTG TC R GTC TGC CAG TCC TCT GTC GG	237-259 312-293
MT	U93206	F CTC TAA GAC TGG AAC CTG R GGG CAG CAT GAG CAG CAG	75-92 167-150
GRP75	DQ524993	F TCC GGT GTG GAT CTG ACC AAA GAC R TGT TTA GGC CCA GAA GCA TCC ATG	358-381 500-477
β -actin	X89920	F TCC TGC GGA ATC CAT GAG A R GAC GTC GCA CTT CAT GAT GCT	811-829 861-841

Table 3. Concentration of PCBs, DL-PCBs (*), OCPs, PBDEs and PAHs in experimental diets. Each value is the mean of three separate determinations. Coefficient of variation is under parentheses.

Compound (ng/g wet wt)	CTRL	33VO	66VO	VO
PCB 28+31	0.2(3)	0.1(3)	0.1(3)	< 0.1
PCB 52	0.5(5)	0.3(6)	0.2(4)	0.1(9)
PCB 101	1(13)	0.7(5)	0.4(10)	0.2(10)
PCB 77*	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2
PCB 118*	1(5)	0.8(11)	0.5(12)	0.2(21)
PCB 153	2.5(5)	2(7)	1.5(5)	0.6(4)
PCB 105*	0.4(2)	0.3(21)	0.2(8)	< 0.1
PCB 138	1.4(2)	1.3(3)	0.8(15)	0.4(5)
PCB 126*	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2
PCB 128	0.3(30)	0.2(4)	0.2(7)	< 0.1
PCB 156 *	0.3(28)	0.2(16)	< 0.1	0.1(25)
PCB 180	0.7(6)	0.8(21)	0.5(3)	0.3(15)
PCB 169*	0.2(10)	0.1(18)	< 0.1	< 0.1
PCB 170	0.3(5)	0.3(11)	0.2(12)	< 0.2
HCB	0.6(6)	0.4(10)	0.4(10)	0.2(11)
p,p'-DDT	5.8(8)	4.1(4)	2.6(3)	0.9(12)
p,p'-DDE	2.2(7)	1.7(5)	1.1(11)	0.3(27)
p,p'-DDD	1.2(6)	1.1(12)	0.7(7)	0.3(24)
PBDE 28	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1
PBDE 71	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1
PBDE 47	0.13(11)	0.12(12)	< 0.1	< 0.1
PBDE 66	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1
PBDE 100	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1
PBDE 99	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1
PBDE 85	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1
PBDE 154	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1
PBDE 153	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1
PBDE 138	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1
PBDE 183	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1
PBDE 209	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1
Naphthalene	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5
Acenaphthylene	< 0.1	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2
Acenaphthene	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2
Fluorene	< 0.3	< 0.3	< 0.3	< 0.3
Phenanthrene + Anthracene	0.62(15)	1.50(5)	0.38(11)	< 0.2
Fluoranthene	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2
Pyrene	1.33(7)	0.83(15)	< 0.2	< 0.2
Benzo [a] anthracene	1.12(5)	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2
Chrysene	1.41(5)	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2
Benzo [b] fluoranthene	2.68(4)	2.01(19)	2.20(5)	2.06(8)
Benzo [k] fluoranthene	2.31(8)	2.19(7)	2.16(7)	2.07(6)
Benzo [a] pyrene	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2
Indeno [1,2,3-cd] pyrene	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2
Dibenzo [a,h] anthracene	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2
Benzo [g,h,i] perylene	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2	< 0.2
$\sum PCBs + DL-PCBs$	8.66	7.03	4.71	2.22
$\sum OCPs$	9.8	7.3	4.8	1.6
$\sum PAHs$	9.5	6.5	4.7	4.1
DL-PCBs TEQ, ng/g wet wt to humans	0.00231	0.00123	0.00114	0.0011
DL-PCBs TEQ, ng/g wet wt to fish	0.0000385	0.0000315	0.000029	0.000027

Figure 1

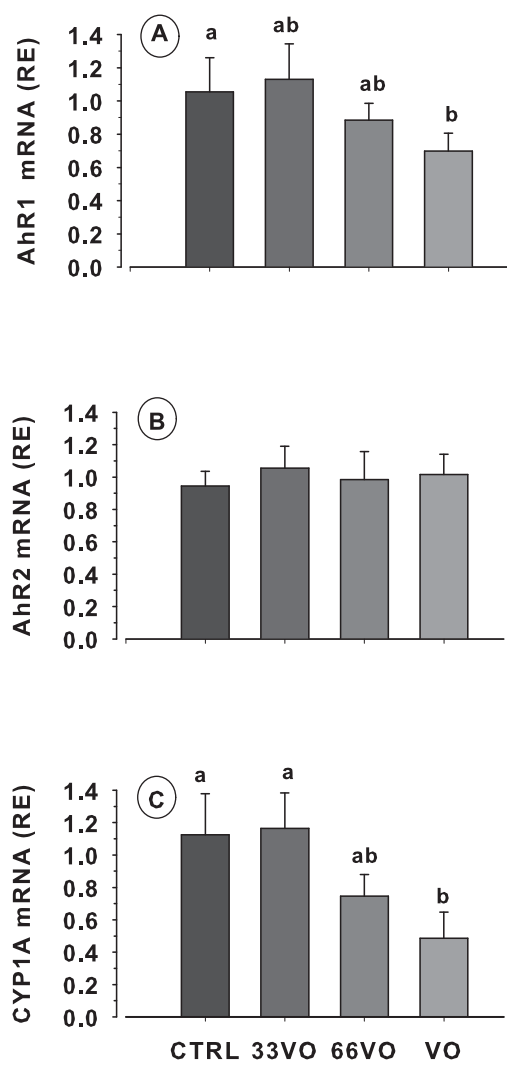


FIG. 1

Figure 2

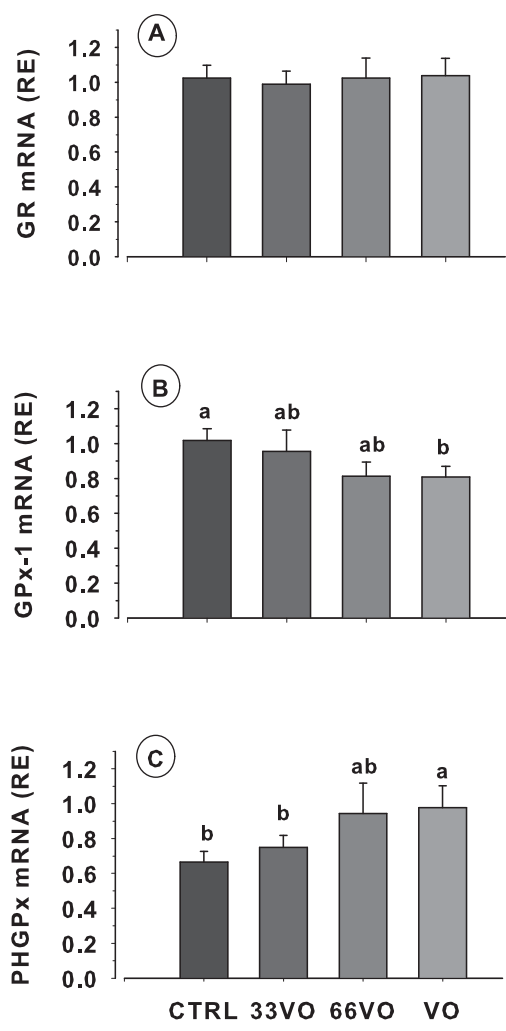


FIG. 2

Figure 3

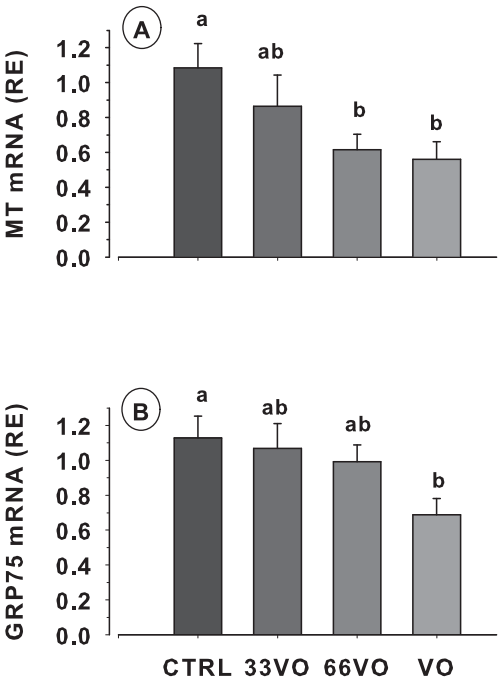


FIG. 3

Figure 4

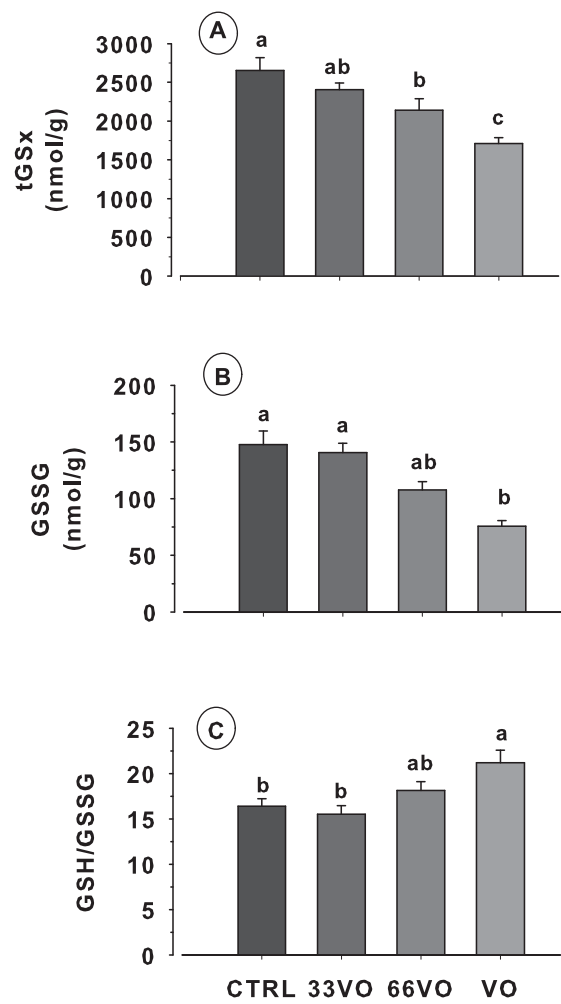


FIG. 4

Figure 5

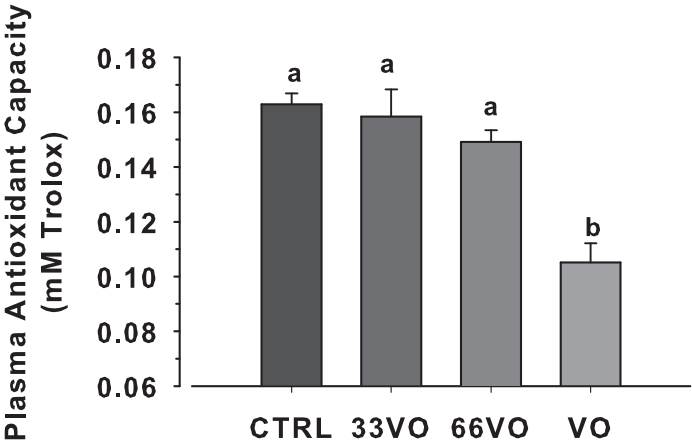


FIG. 5

Figure 6

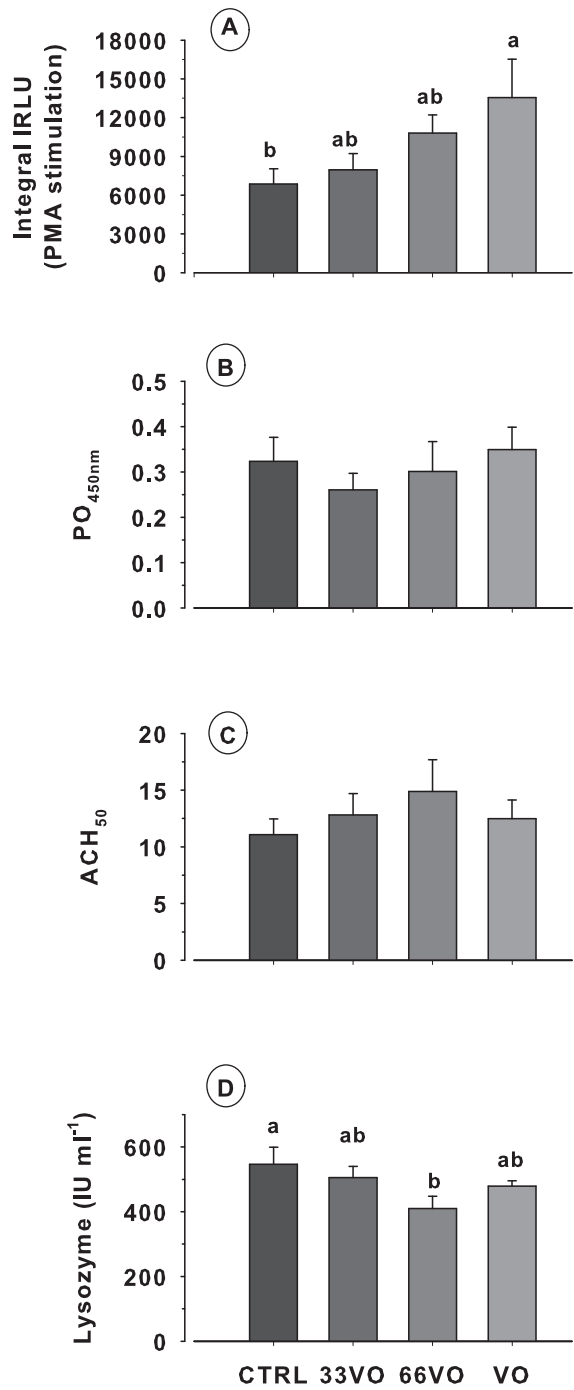


FIG. 6